

# Career Progression and Satisfaction among Female Academics of Selected Universities in Southwest, Nigeria

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## **Abstract**

*This article examined the rate at which female academics progress in their career and the level of on-the-job satisfaction in some selected universities. One hundred and nineteen copies of questionnaire were retrieved from respondents which was then analysed through descriptive and inferential statistical methods. Results revealed that despite numerous years spent in the service of these institutions, female academics still maintain the ranks they were placed on from their first appointments. This was due to factors such as poor conditions of work, loaded marriage obligations, insufficient educational qualification and overcrowded job schedule which have resulted in poor participation in administrative duties and insufficient academic publication among others. The article concludes that female progression to top academic ranks is slow due to structural demands. The article, therefore, recommends that policies that promote work flexibility are to be put in place by these institutions in order to enhance healthy balance and harmonious relationship between female academics, their spouses and the school management. By doing this, it is expected that promotion requirements are met, tendencies for progression are certain and satisfaction is guaranteed.*

**Keywords:** Academics, Career progression, Family, Satisfaction, Women, Universities

## **Introduction**

Gender issues have been the focal point of debate in many local, national, regional and international discourses (Adegun, 2012). There has been considerable progress in increasing the number of women hired at colleges and universities in the United States of America, which indicated a 16% rise between 1997 and 2007 (Trower, 2012; Terosky, O'Meara and Campbell, 2014). This was achieved through the assistance of several bodies that put significant resources into programmes to create more equitable work environments for academic parents (National Science Foundation, 2006; Sturm, 2006). However, the percentage of women employed as full-time

academics ranges from the highest of 50% in Jamaica to the least of 9.5% in Ghana, with a Commonwealth average of 24%. The smallest percentages were found in Ghana 9.5%, Tanzania 11.0%, Zambia 10.9% and Zimbabwe 9.8% all in Africa (Akinsanya, 2012).

Studies have revealed that in Nigeria, female lecturers are found in many disciplines and departments in various faculties but, however, constitute just 20.3% of the total number of lecturers in Nigerian universities (Akinsanya, 2012; Aluko, 2006). In the University of Ilorin for instance, statistics showed that the ratio of female/male is 11.6% to 88.4% (Egunjobi, 2009). This may be linked to the unequal opportunities for male and female children access to education as there is a perceived belief that education is much more important to male children than the females (Adegun, 2012; Kalejaiye, Sokefun, and Adewusi, 2015). Meanwhile, education unveils all human potential(s) and of course a critical factor in human life. Education is believed to be the most powerful and dynamic instrument for the economic, political, social, scientific and technological development of nations (Aghenta, 2001). Thus, experts observed that a country with more educated girls and women will not only heal her economy but will make it wealthier (UNESCO, 1985; Human Development Index, 2014). As a result, the role of women in economic growth and development cannot be over-emphasized.

Despite the priceless role of women in societal development, studies have revealed the poor representation of female academics at professorial levels (Adegun, 2012; Akinsanya, 2012; Aluko 2009; Glazer-Raymo, 1999, 2008; Misra, Lundquis, Dahlberg, and Agiomavritus, 2011; Modern Language Association of America 2009; Oyebade and Awosusi, 2012; Terosky et al, 2014; Valian, 1998). Furthermore, the progression of women to the upper ranks of academic cadre has been complicated and slow, with women remaining underrepresented at the top and overrepresented at the bottom (Akinsanya, 2012; Trower, 2012; Oyebade and Awosusi, 2012; Valian, 1998; Ward and Wolf-Wendel, 2013). They continue to be restricted by entrenched structural and cultural barriers and by promotion systems that still largely rely on the publication records of candidates for promotions (Akinsanya, 2012; Aluko, 2006; Klopp, 1993).

It is worthy to note that university lecturers are currently facing many challenges in form of inadequate infrastructure, lack of enabling research environment, the disparity in salary and allowances; inconsistent policy implementation between Federal and State governments may well affect their levels of job satisfaction (Kniveton, 1991). While these environmental factors might affect the level at which they are satisfied with their job, little has been written on how structural demands affect academic progression especially among female academics (Adeoye, 1992; Albrecht, 2003; Allan, 2011; Clark and Corcoran, 1986; Durosaro, 1995; Jonathan and Stone, 1989; International Labour Organization, 2004) and how the latter has influenced their level of job satisfaction (Schulze, 2005). It was against this backdrop this study examined career progression and satisfaction among female academics in selected

universities in South-west, Nigeria. Specifically, this study: accounts for the rate at which female academics progress to top ranks; documents the perceived factors responsible for slow career progression; confirms the nature of relationship between perceived factors responsible for slow career progression and year of last promotion and; investigates the relationship between career progression and job satisfaction among female academics in selected universities of southwest, Nigeria.

***Women, Career Progression, and Job Satisfaction: A Review of Literature***

A plethora of studies have been conducted on the aspect of gender issues and career progression. For instance, feminist scholars were of the opinion that societal structures of power hinder women's advancement, particularly in light of the increasing managerialism in the 21st century (Anderson, 2009; Bagchi-Sen, Rao, Upadhyaya and Chai, 2009; Bierema, 1998; Connell and Messerschmitt, 2005; Davies and Thomas, 2002; Gonzales, Martinez, and Ordu, 2013). Barriers to women career progression include the absence of effective management training programs, access to training and development opportunities (Kurgat and Omuya, 2011), inadequate compensation systems, inflexibility of work schedules, and absence of programs to balance work-life demands (Mattis, 1994). Furthermore, studies conducted revealed that barriers to advancement reported by women executives include stereotyping, discrimination, the existence of male-dominant cultures in organizations, less access to career development opportunities, and their exclusion from networking (Catalyst 1992, 1996; Glazer-Raymo, 2008; Huang, 2009; Marshall, 1995; Ragins, Townsend, and Mattis, 1998; Riley and White, 1994; Tharenou, 1999). Also, a key disadvantage for a promotion that accumulates for women faculty is a lack of collegiality and mentoring (Allan, 2011; Terosky, O'Meara and Campbell, 2014). However, these studies were limited to women executives in private organizations. Therefore, the study at hand focused on female academics.

Furthermore, some authors argued that managerial structures uphold gender norms and schemas (Valian, 1998) and segregated work roles (Anker, 1998; European Commission, 2005a, 2005b; Glazer-Raymo, 2008), and demographic decomposition (Sharmistha, Shambhu-Upadhyaya and Chai, 2009) have disproportionately relegated women to be historically undervalued and less recognized relational and domestic functions of academic work especially in teaching, advising, service, lower level administrative work (Clark and Corcoran, 1986; Dahlberg, and Agiomavritis, 2011; Lester, 2011; Misra, Lundquist, MLA, 2009; Schuster and Finkelstein, 2006). More so, women's family roles have affected their professional work engagement and advancement to a greater degree than men, largely in part due to societal pressures around gendered notions of woman as caretaker and homemaker (Adeoye, 1992; Allan, 2011; Albrecht, 2003; Clark and Corcoran, 1986;

Durosaro, 1995; Fox, Schwartz and Hart, 2006; ILO, 2004; Jonathan and Stone, 1989; Mason and Goulden, 2004; Trower, 2012; Valian, 1998; Ward and Wolf-Wendel, 2013; Adisa, Mordi and Mordi, 2014; Sharmistha, Shambhu-Upadhyaya and Chai, 2009), especially the married ones (Delina and Raya, 2013; European Commission Report, 2012; O'laughl and Bischoff, 2005).

In addition, Ogbodu (2013) found out that several factors such as long hours of work, overcrowded job schedules, inadequate working facilities, family and domestic responsibilities, teacher-student ratio and cohesive Heads of Departments accounted for greater work-family conflict among women academics. By extension, their job may require constant travels outside the town of residence for corporate meetings, supervisory duties, study-leave training. Sometimes relocation could enhance and accelerate promotion to a higher status, but the inability of some women especially married women to fulfill these requirements has robbed some well-qualified women of top positions (Akinsanya, 2012). It is a known fact that academic career(s) is shaped more by the 'publish-or-perish' syndrome (Akinsanya, 2012; Babajide, 1995; Sax, Hagedorn, Arredondo, and Dicrisi, 2002;) and research grants (Argon, 1995; Easterly and Pemberton, 2008; Kleinfelder, Price, and Dake, 2003) than by his or her contributions in other areas, women academics find themselves in vulnerable positions with regards to career advancement because they carry disproportionately higher workloads in the areas of teaching, service, and lower level administration (Terosky, et., al, 2014). Women are no longer fully blocked from entering the profession, but gendered expectations within the promotion process for publication productivity is misaligned with the workload women face (Clark and Corcoran, 1986; Cress and Hart, 2009; Martinez Aleman, 2008; Trower, 2012).

Job satisfaction can be defined as positive affect towards employment (Mueller and McCloskey, 1990) and it is arguably a fairly stable evaluation of how the job meets the employee's needs, wants, or expectations (Fisher, 2003). In research, job satisfaction has been assessed using global aspects as well as multiple facets like salary, career progression, supervisor, etc. (Fisher, 2003). Mukthar (2012), found no relationship between work-life balance and satisfaction. Schulze (2005) was of the opinion that satisfaction among female academics was related to many intrinsic aspects of their work, such as the enjoyment of teaching, contact with students, the growth teaching generated in them and using their expertise to serve their communities. Dissatisfaction was caused by issues with intrinsic factors, namely lack of achievement in the research field, heavy workloads and lack of contact with students. Other causes of dissatisfaction were a shortage of funding to attend conferences, being burdened with unnecessary administrative work and meetings, poor salaries, lack of job security and a flawed promotion system.

While the stock of studies presented above have done well by identifying the factors responsible for the slow-paced advancement of women in the academic ladder, little attention have been given to the nature of relationship

between the perceived causes of slow academic progression and the actual rate of progression, and the implication of the latter on their job satisfaction. It is not wrong to say that social, cultural, family, religious factors, and factors surrounding the work itself has been some major impediments to the career progression of women academics. However, little attention has been given to economic, marriage, political and educational factors. Besides, most past studies were conducted largely in the private formal sectors, while little studies have focused on the job satisfaction of female academics. Meanwhile, this type of study is few in Africa, especially in Nigeria (Akinsanya, 2012; Aluko, 2006). These are the issues of concern in this study.

***Career Progression in Nigerian Universities: A brief Overview***

Universities are citadels of learning, knowledge-producing and transfer institutions and repositories of fundamental knowledge (University of Ibadan, 2015). The major functions of a university are teaching/learning, research and community service. Research is central to these activities, in so far as effective teaching is based on research outcome while effective participation in community service that is knowledge-oriented is also based on research outcomes. This section on of the paper deals with the promotion criteria for institutions of concern in this study. This was justified in the table below.

**Table 1: Conditions for Promotion in selected Universities**

S/N	Movement	Criteria	Requirements	
			Olabisi Onabanjo University	University of Ibadan
1	Assistant Lecturer to Lecturer II	Publications	9 points (Minimum)	1. Possession of a higher degree at least a Masters. 2. A minimum of three years teaching experience; and 3. An assistant lecturer with MPhil plus one-year experience may receive a promotion, subject to a good report by the supervisor and the Head of Department.
		Teaching Workload	12 points (1 point per 1 unit course to a maximum of 12 points)	
		Administrative responsibility	9 points (3 points per responsibility)	
		Teaching experience	3 points (1 point per year)	
		Total	34 points	
				1. A minimum of three years teaching experience; 2. Competence in research; and 3. Publications.
				Note: Promotion will not be made beyond Lecturer I unless the candidate has a Ph.D or a relevant postgraduate professional qualification.

S/N	Movement	Criteria	Requirements	
			Olabisi Onabanjo University	University of Ibadan
2	Lecturer II to Lecturer I	Publications	18 points (Minimum)	
		Teaching Workload	12 points (1 point per 1 unit course to a maximum of 15 points)	
		Administrative responsibility	9 points (3 points per responsibility)	
		Teaching experience	6 point (1 point per year)	
		Total	45 points	
3	Lecturer I to Senior Lecturer	Publications	31 points (22*) Minimum	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A minimum of three years teaching experience;</li> <li>2. Adequate research;</li> <li>3. Adequate publications; and</li> <li>4. Possession of a Ph.D. or its equivalent is mandatory for this category of staff.</li> </ol>
		Teaching Workload	12 points (1 point per 1 unit course to a maximum of 15 points)	
		Administrative responsibility	9 points (3 point per responsibility)	
		Teaching experience	9 points (1 point per year)	
		Total	61 points (51*) Minimum	
4	Senior Lecturer to Reader	Publications	46 points (Minimum)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Adequate experience, including where applicable, professional competence;</li> <li>2. Outstanding research and publications;</li> <li>3. Adequate teaching ability for a minimum of 3 years; and</li> <li>4. Possession of a higher degree of Ph.D. or its equivalent.</li> </ol>
		Teaching Workload	12 points (1 point per 1 unit course to a maximum of 15 points)	
		Administrative responsibility	9 points (3 points per responsibility)	
		Teaching experience	12 points (1 point per year)	
		Total	79 points	
5	Reader to Professor	Publications	70 points (Minimum)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Adequate experience, including where applicable relevant professional competence;</li> <li>2. Outstanding research and publications;</li> <li>3. Exceptional teaching ability;</li> <li>4. Evidence of leadership in research and postgraduate supervision;</li> <li>5. Administrative ability or competence; and</li> <li>6. Possession of a higher degree of a Ph.D. or its equivalent.</li> </ol>
		Teaching Workload	12 points (1 point per 1 unit course to a maximum of 15 points)	
		Administrative responsibility	9 points (3 point per responsibility)	
		Teaching experience	15 points (1 point per year)	
		Total	106 points	

**Source:** OOU Criteria for promotion of Academic Staff (2014) and Regulations and Guidelines of Promotions for Academic Staff (2015)

## **Theoretical Underpinnings**

### ***Institutional Theory***

The institutional theory focuses on the deeper and more resilient aspects of social structure. It considers the processes by which structures, including schemes, rules, norms, and beliefs, become established as authoritative guidelines for the social behaviour of human (Scott, 2004). Different components of institutional theory explain how these elements are created, diffused, adopted, and adapted over space and time; and how they fall into decline and disuse. Scott (2008) indicates that, in order to survive, organizations must conform to the rules and belief systems prevailing in the environment.

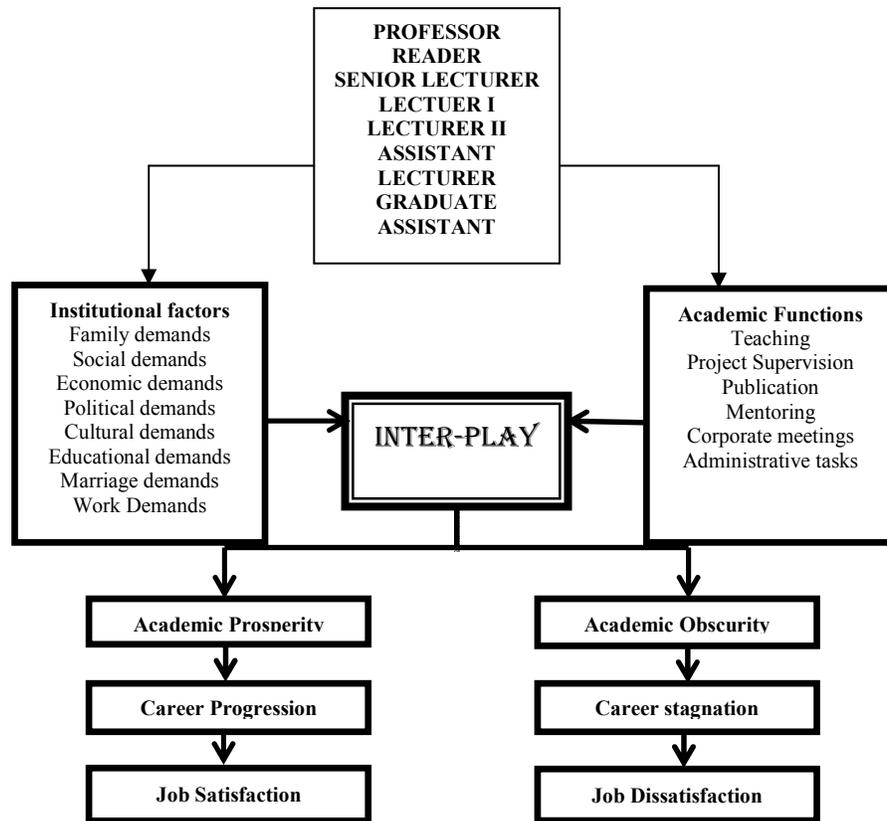
Relating this to the study at hand, organizations identified by Scott (2008) can be likened to women in academics, while the rules and belief system prevailing in the environment depicts the axioms or philosophies of the existing social institutions in every society. They are the institutional demands imposed on women by the societal institutions. Therefore, in order to function to the fullest, women would have to behave in conformity with the institutional demands. More so, the survival identified by him relates to the various tasks of academics which are their soul means of livelihood. Therefore, it is not wrong to say that these aforementioned institutional/societal demands (i.e., Social, economic, family, political, Religious, Marriage, Educational, and cultural demands) has direct implications on women when performing tasks related to the job (teaching, publication, supervision, conferences, workshops, etc.). Precisely, in the course of harmonizing the intuitional/societal demands and that of their means of livelihood brings about the conflict. This could obscure the tendencies of women advancing through their academic career ladder. However, this theory was inadequate to capture issues the study proposes to address. To address this insufficiency, the study shall adopt another theory.

### ***Self-discrepancy Theory***

This theory was developed by Edward Tory Higgins in 1987. The theory proposes how a variety of self-discrepancies represents a variety of types of negative psychological situations that are associated with different kinds of discomfort. The self-discrepancy theory states that people compare themselves to internalized standards called "self-guides". These different representations of the self can be contradictory and result in emotional discomfort. Self-discrepancy is the gap between two of these self-representations. Applying this to the study at hand, it has been said before now that there exists conflict between the work and personal life, both are of equal importance. This theory posits that if female academics are able to strike a balance between their academic work and their personal life, without the latter affecting the former, there would be some level of satisfaction with the job otherwise dissatisfaction.

The reason had been that they would not be able to engage in work activities which determine their promotion, thus, career advancement at their workplace.

**Proposed Conceptual Framework**



**Fig 1:** Interplay between Academic Cadre, Institutional Demands, Academic Functions and expected outcomes by Authors, (2016)

Drawing from the diagrammatical representation above, there are certain institutional demands women must fulfill in the society. These institutional demands include economic demands (such as engaging in a private business or any other source of income as a correlate of their purchasing power and other prevailing economic policy etc.), social demands (such as relationship with superiors and subordinates at work, their ability to network, attend wedding, burial, naming ceremony and other forms of social gatherings), family demands (such as caring and rearing of children, cooking, and other home chores), educational demands (such as aspiration to further their education, attending conferences, workshops and other forms of learning and development programmes), cultural demands (such as those traditional belief system that imposes the function of acting the roles of a mother at their various

homes), Religious demands (such as the roles imposed on women by the bible or Quran such as the rearing of caring for children, to be submissive to their husband, to be an helper etc.) and marriage demands (such as those imposed by the family, cultural and religious factors). On the other hand, academic functions that must be performed by female academics includes teaching, publications, student project supervision, community service and other forms of administrative tasks such as mentoring and the like.

The authors were of the opinion that the interplay between these institutional and academic demands largely determines the progression of female lecturers through the academic cadre. Hence, a harmonious interplay between the institutional demands and academic functions will probably result in academic prosperity, by meeting all promotion requirements which, therefore, leads to career progression and perhaps, job satisfaction. On the other hand, if the institutional factors identified goes in conflicts with academic function, it results to academic obscurity (i.e., promotion criteria will not be met), which leads to career stagnation and thus, dissatisfaction with the job.

### **Materials and Methods**

This study was descriptive in nature. It adopted a cross-sectional research design. In addition to this, survey method was used for the study. The purpose for the descriptiveness of this study lies in the fact that the study aim was to report the exact phenomenon as regards the subject matter of the study. The study was carried out in two (2) universities in Southwest Nigeria. These comprise of government (state and federal) owned universities which consist of Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ago-Iwoye, Ogun State and University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Oyo State.

The study population consists of all female teaching staffs in selected universities who are not above the rank of lecturer I. The threshold was selected because the researchers were aware that an academic that does not hold a Ph.D., irrespective of his/her duration of service, is not expected to be promoted beyond the level of lecturer I. Hence, it was believed that those who are faced with the issue of career progression will be found within this academic cadre. As a result, the sample size was these set of academics. The research utilized non-probability sampling technique. Specifically, purposive and snowball sampling techniques were used for the study. Purposive sampling technique was used as a direct way of obtaining information from respondents since the researchers knew some of these female academics facing the change of progression in their career. However, few of those academics that were known was grossly inadequate for the study for it generalize its findings. To address this inadequacy, snowball sampling technique was adopted in such a way that the identified sample helped to reveal others facing similar issues.

The study made use of quantitative data. Questionnaire was used to elicit quantitative data. The questionnaire made use of variables identified by the

literature as affecting female academics career progression and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was used to measure Job Satisfaction with both measured on four (4) and five (5) item Likert scales respectively (i.e., 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree and 4=Strongly Agree and 5=Strongly Disagree, 4=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 2=Agree and 5=Strongly Agree). Hence, the method of data analysis for this study involved descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics made use of frequency distribution, simple percentage and arithmetic mean to represent data obtained from the field work.

To analyze the mean values, a benchmark was setup to describe the direction of the relationship, which is ( $x \leq 2.5 \geq x$ ). This connotes that when a mean value is greater than or equal to 2.5, the statement is accepted otherwise rejected. The inferential analysis aims to deduce from the data by investigating the distribution of score on each research indicator in determining whether the scores on different variables are related to each other through the use of Chi-square, one sample t-test, and multiple regression analyses. The level of significance adopted by the three statistical techniques is 0.05 (i.e., 95% level of confidence). This is performed primarily to gain an overall impression of the data collected. The instruments designed for the study was scrutinized by three (3) academics and expert judgments were given which led to the modification of the instruments to ensure it was fit-for-purpose. In addition to this, a pilot study was carried out to identify ambiguities on the instruments which led to another readjustment. After this was done, the Cronbach Alpha for each scale used for the study was also obtained. This is shown in Table 1.0.

**Table 1.0: Cronbach Alpha Scale**

Scales	Cronbach Alpha's	No of Items
Career Progression Factors	0.825	33
Job Satisfaction Factors	0.794	20

The table above shows that career progression factors are 83% reliable, while job satisfaction scale was 79% reliable. This suggests that the items have relatively high internal consistency, according to Institute for Digital Research and Education (IDRE, 2016) who submitted that a reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered "acceptable" in most social science research situations.

**Data Presentation and Analysis**

**Table 2.0: Socio-demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Items	Response Categories	Frequency	Percent
Religion	Christian	105	88.2
	Muslim	14	11.8
Ethnicity	Yoruba	112	94.1
	Igbo	7	5.9
Marital Status	Single	14	11.8
	Married	105	88.2
Age	21 - 30	14	11.8
	31 - 40	35	29.4
	41 - 50	56	47.1
	Above 50 Years	14	11.8
Highest Educational Qualification	HND/BSc	7	5.9
	MSc	70	58.8
	MPhil	14	11.8
	Ph.D.	28	23.5
Total Monthly Income	N200,000 or Below	77	64.7
	Above N200,000	42	35.3
Number of Children	1	28	23.5
	2	28	23.5
	3	7	5.9
	4	7	5.9
	None	49	41.2
Academic Cadre	Graduate Assistant	35	29.4
	Assistant lecturer	35	29.4
	Lecturer II	7	5.9
	Lecturer I	42	35.3
Duration in Service	Less than a year	14	11.8
	1 - 5 years	28	23.5
	6 - 10 years	28	23.5
	More than 10 years	49	41.2
Nature of Employment	Full Staff	91	76.5
	Temporary	28	23.5
Position Placed on Appointment	Graduate Assistant	49	41.2
	Assistant Lecturer	56	47.1
	Lecturer II	14	11.8
Whether Respondents were promoted before	Yes	84	70.6
	No	35	29.4
Date of last promotion	1 - 5 years ago	21	25.0
	6 - 10 years ago	63	75.0
	Total	119	100.0

Table 2 shows that 88.2% of surveyed female lecturers are Christians, while the remaining 11.8% are Muslims. The Yoruba's, whose proportion stands at 94.1%, dominated the study, while the remaining 5.9% are Igbo's. Furthermore, 11.8% of the respondents are single, while the bulk of the respondents representing about 88.2% of the respondents are married. Additionally, 11.8% of the respondents were between 21 – 30 years of age, 29.4% of the respondents fell within the age range of 31 – 40 years. 47.1% of respondents are between the age ranges of 41 – 50, while about 11.8% of the respondents were above 50 years old. The above data on age signifies that the females' academics that were largely considered for this study are between the ages of 41 and 50 years. In terms of educational qualification, 5.9% of the respondents were either HND or BSc holders, 58.8% were MSc holders, 11.8% are MPhil holders while the remaining 23.5% are Ph.D. holders. Hence, those who were mostly considered for this study are Masters Holders. Table 2.0 further revealed that 64.7% of the respondents earn a total income which is either below N200, 000 or exactly the former, while about 35.3% of the respondents earn above N200,000.

Table 2 further revealed that 23.5% of the respondents have 1 and 2 child (ren) respectively, while 5.9% has 3 and 4 children respectively and the bulk of the respondents, representing 41.2% of the respondents has no child. Furthermore, 29.4% of the respondents are graduate assistants and Assistant Lecturers respectively, while 5.9% of the respondents are Lecturer I and 35.3% are Lecturer II. Hence, those who were mostly considered for the study are female academics in the cadre of Lecturer I. more so, 11.8% of the respondents have been in the service of their institution in less than a year, 23.5% were between 1 – 5 years and 6 - 10 years respectively and 41.2% of the respondents have been in the service of their institutions for more than 10 years. This is to say that most of the respondents considered for the study have been in academics for more than 10 years.

Meanwhile, 76.5% are full staffs while 23.5% are yet to be confirmed as a full staff. More so, 41.2% of the respondents were placed in the position of graduate assistant on their first appointment in the institution, 47.1% were assistant lecturers while 11.8% of the respondents were Lecturer II. In addition to this, 70.6% of the respondents claimed that they have been promoted prior to the time of this study, however, 29.4% attest to the fact that they have never been promoted. For those who have been promoted prior to the time of this study, 25.0% of those respondents who were promoted got them within the period of 1 – 5 years, while 75.0% secured their promotions 6 – 10 years after they joined their respective institutions.

**Rate at which Female Academics Progress to Top Ranks**

**Table 3.1: Highest Educational Qualification and Present Academic Cadre**

Present Academic Cadre	Highest Educational Qualification				Total
	HND/BSc	MSc	MPhil	Ph.D.	
Graduate Assistant	7	14	0	0	21
	33.30%	66.70%	0.00%	0.00%	17.60%
Assistant lecturer	0	28	7	14	49
	0.00%	57.10%	14.30%	28.60%	41.20%
Lecturer II	0	0	7	0	7
	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	5.90%
Lecturer I	0	28	0	14	42
	0.00%	66.70%	0.00%	33.30%	35.30%
Total	7	70	14	28	119
	5.90%	58.80%	11.80%	23.50%	100.00%

**$\chi^2 = 99.167; df = 9; Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.000$**

Table 3.1 shows that there is a significant ( $P_{0.000} < 0.05$ ) association between the highest educational qualification and the present academic cadre of female academics. Specifically, the table shows that 33.3% and 66.7% of the respondents who are HND/BSc and MSc holders respectively are presently graduate assistants in their institutions. In addition to this, 57.1%, 14.3% and 28.6% of the respondents who were MSc, MPhil and Ph.D. holders respectively are, at the time of this study occupied the post of assistant lecturers. Additionally, all respondents who were MPhil holders are placed on Lectureship II, while 66.7% and 33.3% who were MSc and Ph.D. holders were placed on the position of lecturer I. This is to say that, while some of the surveyed female academics who are currently graduate assistants possess MSc, which qualifies them for assistant lecturers, they are yet to be promoted to the level (i.e., assistant lectureship). Also, the table also shows those female academics who currently occupy the post of assistant lecturer and who has Ph.D. qualifications are yet to be promoted to the top cadre. Lastly, the table also shows that some of the respondents are presently lecturer one without Ph.D.'s, which is a bearer to getting to top ranks.

**Table 3.2: Position Placed on first Appointment and Present Academic Cadre**

Position Placed on First Appointment	Present Academic Cadre				
	Graduate Assistant	Assistant lecturer	Lecturer II	Lecturer I	Total
Graduate Assistant	35	14	0	0	49
	71.40%	28.60%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
Assistant Lecturer	0	21	7	28	56
	0.00%	37.50%	12.50%	50.00%	100.00%
Lecturer II	0	0	0	14	14
	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	100.00%
Total	35	35	7	42	119
	29.40%	29.40%	5.90%	35.30%	100.00%

$$\chi^2 = 100.583; df = 6; \text{Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)} = 0.000$$

Table 3.2 shows that there is a significant ( $P_{0.000} < 0.05$ ) association between the position placed on the first appointment and the present academic cadre of female academics. Specifically, 71.4% and 28.6% of the respondents who presently occupied the positions of Graduate assistants and Assistant lecturer respectively were formerly placed on the graduate assistant level. Additionally, 37.5%, 12.5% and 50.0% of respondents who now occupied the positions of Assistant Lecturer, Lecturer II and Lecturer I respectively was formerly placed on assistant lecturers. Lastly, all lecturers who now occupied the post of lecturer II are formerly Lecturer I. A careful observation of table 4.0 above shows that 71.4% and 37.5% of those who were appointed as graduate assistants and assistant lecturers still maintain their positions.

**Table 3.3: Position Placed on Appointment and Duration in Service**

Position Placed on Appointment	Duration in Service				
	Less than a year	1 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	10 years and Above	Total
Graduate Assistant	5.8	11.5	11.5	20.2	49
	28.60%	28.60%	14.30%	28.60%	41.20%
Assistant Lecturer	0	14	14	28	56
	0.00%	25.00%	25.00%	50.00%	47.10%
Lecturer II	0	0	7	7	14
	0.00%	0.00%	50.00%	50.00%	11.80%
Total	14	28	28	49	119
	11.80%	23.50%	23.50%	41.20%	100.00%

$$\chi^2 = 33.089; df = 6; \text{Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)} = 0.000$$

Table 3.3 shows that there is a significant association between position placed on appointment and the duration in service. Specifically, 28.6%, 28.6%, 14.3% and 28.6% of the respondents who have been in the service of their institutions for Less than a year, 1–5 years, 6–10 years and above 10 years respectively

were, on the appointment, placed on the level of graduate assistantship. Furthermore, 25.0%, 25.0% and 50.0% of those who have been working for the institution for 1–5 years, 6–10 years and above 10 years respectively, were prior to this time placed on assistant lectureship. Lastly, 50% of those who have been in the service of the universities for 6–10 years and above 10 years respectively formerly placed on Lecturer II.

**Table 3.4: Self-Rating Matrix on the extent at which Promotion Criteria are been Met by Female Academics in Selected Institutions**

<b>Requirements</b>	<b>Highly Met</b>	<b>Moderate Met</b>	<b>Fairly Met</b>	<b>Poorly Met</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Number of Required Publication	12	19	33	55	119	<b>1.90</b>
	10.1	16.0	27.7	46.2	100.0	
Teaching	111	6	1	1	119	3.91
	93.3	5.0	0.8	0.8	100.0	
Community Service	92	15	7	5	119	3.63
	77.3	12.6	5.9	4.2	100.0	
Conference Attendance	75	33	9	2	119	3.52
	63.0	27.7	7.6	1.7	100.0	
Administrative works	23	16	44	36	119	<b>2.22</b>
	19.3	13.4	37.0	30.3	100.0	
Learned Society belongingness	78	22	11	8	119	3.43
	65.5	18.5	9.2	6.7	100.0	
International Publication requirements	13	36	34	36	119	<b>2.22</b>
	10.9	30.3	28.6	30.3	100.0	
Local Publication Requirements	43	21	34	21	119	2.72
	36.1	17.6	28.6	17.6	100.0	
Computer literacy	112	4	3	0	119	3.92
	94.1	3.4	2.5	0.0	100.0	
Relationship with Superiors, Subordinates and Students	109	9	1	0	119	3.91
	91.6	7.6	0.8	0.0	100.0	

Table 3.4 displayed a self-rated matrix of the extent at which female academics have met the promotion requirements of their institutions. It specifically shows that respondent met requirements such as community service, conference attendance, learning society belongingness, local publication requirements, computer literacy and relationship with superiors, subordinates, and students. However, respondents claimed not to have met criteria such as a number of required publications, administrative works, and international publication requirements.

**Table 4.1: Factors affecting Female Academics Career Progression**

Items	t	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Decision
Multiple Job Holding	43.45	0.000	3.29	Reject
Expensive publication fees	54.85	0.000	3.00	Reject
Poor writing skills	48.14	0.000	3.24	Reject
Delayed payment of salary	43.57	0.000	3.24	Reject
Inadequate salary	47.51	0.000	3.00	Reject
Nature of relationship with superior	47.79	0.000	3.29	Reject
Lack of mentor	55.93	0.000	3.18	Reject
Lack of cordial relationship with peers	78.53	0.000	3.29	Reject
Excess social life	33.59	0.000	3.00	Reject
Performance stereotype	61.78	0.000	3.41	Reject
M.Sc./PhD and academic functions conflict	40.71	0.000	3.12	Reject
Poor condition of work	38.56	0.000	2.47	<b>Accept</b>
Final year student project supervision	55.05	0.000	2.76	Reject
Lack of career development programmes	33.96	0.000	2.41	<b>Accept</b>
Cultural similarities with promotion board	49.72	0.000	2.82	Reject
Religious beliefs	30.75	0.000	2.71	Reject
Relationship with promotion committee	62.74	0.000	3.29	Reject
Excessive time spent with children	39.48	0.000	2.52	Reject
Loaded marriage obligations	38.56	0.000	2.47	<b>Accept</b>
Household chores	37.91	0.000	2.41	<b>Accept</b>
Inflexibility in work schedule	44.31	0.000	2.47	<b>Accept</b>
Lack of work-life balance programmes	53.77	0.000	2.47	<b>Accept</b>
Overcrowded job schedule	31.67	0.000	2.00	<b>Accept</b>
Serial corporate meetings	33.52	0.000	2.35	<b>Accept</b>
Student complaints	34.04	0.000	2.12	Reject
Loaded administrative tasks	34.04	0.000	2.12	<b>Accept</b>
Favouritism of promotion policies	43.45	0.000	2.82	Reject
Organizational structure	37.24	0.000	2.76	Reject
Health demands	64.43	0.000	3.24	Reject

Table 4.1 confirms that holding other sources of income, publication fees, research conduction, untimely payment of salaries, superior-subordinate relationship, lack of a mentor, relationship with peers, attendance of social events and the stereotype believes are not factors affecting female academics progression into top ranks. Furthermore, educational programme, student research supervision, cultural similarities with top officials, religious beliefs, having sensitive relationships with the promotion committee, time spends with children, students complain, unfavourable policies and practices on stereotyping, organizational structure and health demands are not constraints for the slow progression of female academics to top ranks. Aside a significant

number of the respondents (i.e.,  $P_{0.000} < 0.05$ ) confirmed this results, the above mean values are above 2.5, which was initially stated as the benchmark for rejection of an item.

However, constraints such as poor condition of work (such as internet), lack of career development programmes for female academics, marriage obligations, time spent on household jobs, inflexibility of work schedule, policy on work-life balance, overcrowded job schedule, serial corporate meeting, and loaded administrative tasks are factors affecting the career progression of female academics. Aside a significant number of the respondents (i.e.,  $P_{0.000} < 0.05$ ) confirmed this results, the above mean values are below 2.5, which was initially stated as the benchmark for accepting an item.

**Table 5.0: Perceived Factors responsible for the Slow Career Progression and Actual rate of progression among Female Academics**

	<b>B</b>	<b>Sig</b>
Serial corporate meetings	0.184	0.344
Household chores	-0.040	<b>0.042</b>
Marriage Obligations	-0.237	<b>0.007</b>
Inflexibility of work Schedule	-0.189	<b>0.002</b>
Overcrowded job schedule	-0.162	<b>0.000</b>
Lack of Work-life balance programmes	0.043	0.398
Poor working conditions	-0.096	<b>0.048</b>
Lack of Career development Programmes	-0.205	<b>0.001</b>
Loaded administrative task	-0.163	<b>0.000</b>

Table 5.0 displayed the regression analysis of the perceived factors responsible for slow academic progression and actual progression. Specifically, there was no significant relationship ( $P_{0.344} > 0.05$ ) between serial corporate meetings and progression. Hence, this indicates that the attendance of several meetings does not have any influence on female occupying top ranks in their respective institutions. Lastly, there was no significant relationship between lack of work-life balance programmes and progression of female academics. Hence, the absence of work-life balance policies and practices does not affect the progression of female academics to upper ranks.

However, there was a negative significant relationship ( $P_{0.042} < 0.05$ ) between household chores and progression. This connotes that the time and energy spent on household chores by female academics have affected their progression to top ranks. Aside from this factor mentioned above, factors such as marriage obligations, inflexibility of work schedule, overcrowded job schedule, poor working conditions, and progression, lack of career development programmes and loaded administrative tasks are inversely related to career progression of female academics. In essence, an increase in the

aforementioned factors will reduce the chances of female academics of being promoted to top academic cadre and vice versa.

**Table 6.0: Relationship between career progression and job satisfaction among female academics in selected Universities**

	B	Sig.
Career Progression	<b>0.385</b>	<b>0.004</b>

Table 6.0 shows the nature of the relationship between career progression and job satisfaction among female academics in selected universities. Specifically, the table shows that there is a positive ( $B=0.385$ ) significant relationship ( $P_{0.004}<0.05$ ) between career progression and job satisfaction. The table further indicates that a unit increase in career progression will result in a 39% (i.e.,  $B=0.085$ ) increase in job satisfaction of female academics in selected universities.

### **Discussion of Findings**

The first objective of the study was to account for the rate at which female academics progress to top ranks in selected universities. Findings revealed that highest educational qualification and the present academic cadre of female academics are significantly associated. Specifically, while some of the surveyed female academics possess MSc, which qualifies them for assistant lecturers, they are yet to be promoted to the level (i.e., assistant lectureship). Also, female academics who currently occupy the post of assistant lecturer and who have Ph.D. qualifications are yet to be promoted to the top cadre. Lastly, the study found out that, though some of the respondents occupied the position of lecturer I, but are, however, without Ph.D.'s, which is a barrier to getting to top ranks (such as Senior lectureship, Readership, and Professorship). Furthermore, there was a significant association between the position placed on the first appointment and the present academic cadre of female academics. Specifically, despite numerous years spent at the service of respondent's institutions, some of them still maintain the ranks they were placed on from their first appointment. The above findings corroborate the submission of Akinsanya (2012), Trower (2012), Oyebade and Awosusi (2012), Valian (1998) and Ward and Wolf-Wendel (2013), who asserted that progression of women to the upper ranks of academic cadre has been complicated and slow, with women remaining underrepresented at the top and overrepresented at the bottom.

Though, female academics met certain conditions for promotion such as teaching, community service, conference attendance, learned society belongingness, local publication requirements, computer literacy and relationship with superiors, subordinates, and students. However, the study found out that female academics in selected universities are yet to meet certain requirements such as a number of required publications, international

publication requirements, and administrative works, which are key to their promotion to upper ranks. This was in line with the assertion of Clark and Corcoran (1986), Cress and Hart (2009), Martinez-Aleman (2008) and Trower (2012) who submitted that women are no longer restricted from entering the teaching profession, but gendered expectations within the promotion process for publication productivity is misaligned with the tasks women undertake. These findings were also similar to that of Akinsanya (2012), Babajide (1995), Terosky *et al.* (2014) and Sax *et al.* (2002) who submitted that academic career(s) is shaped more by the 'publish-or-perish' syndrome than by his or her contributions in other areas and that women academics find themselves in vulnerable positions in regard to career advancement because they carry disproportionately higher workloads in the areas of teaching, service, and lower level administration.

The second objective was to document the perceived factors responsible for the slow career progression among female academics in selected universities. The study made its findings and corroborates the findings of certain authors. Those factors affecting female academics career progression includes poor condition of work (such as lack of internet, electricity supply and poor ventilated offices), lack of career development programmes for female academics, loaded marriage obligations (Adeoye, 1992; Adisa, Mordi and Mordi, 2014; Albrecht, 2003; Allan, 2011; Clark and Corcoran, 1986; Durosaro, 1995; ILO, 2004; Jonathan and Stone, 1989; Mason and Goulden, 2004; Sharmistha, Fox, Schwartz and Hart, 2006; ShambhuUpadhyaya and Chai, 2009; Trower, 2012; Valian, 1998; Ward and Wolf-Wendel, 2013); time spent on household jobs, inflexibility of work schedule (Mattis, 1994); stereotyping (Catalyst 1992, 1996; Huang, 2009; Glazer-Raymo, 2008; Marshall, 1995; Ragins, Townsend, and Mattis, 1998; Riley and White, 1994; Tharenou, 1999), lack of policy on work-life balance (Aluko, 2009), overcrowded job schedule (Ogbogu, 2013; Terosky *et al.*, 2014); and serial corporate meeting have impeded the opportunities for female academics to progress through the academic ladder. The above findings corroborate the assumptions of Institutional theory which argues that the survival of actors within the social system is constrained by their abilities to meet certain institutional demands. Hence, it is right to say that these institutional/societal demands (i.e., Social, economic, family, political, Religious, Marriage, Educational, and cultural demands) has direct implications on women when performing tasks related to the job (teaching, publication, supervision, conferences, workshops, etc.), which are the determinants of the academic progression.

The third objective was to examine the nature of the relationship between perceived factors responsible for the slow academic progression and the actual rate of progression among female academics at selected universities. Factors such as energy spent on household chores and marriage obligations (Adeoye,

1992; Adisa, Mordi and Mordi, 2014; Schwartz and Hart, 2006), inflexibility of work schedule (Mattis, 1994), overcrowded job schedule (Ogbogu, 2013), poor working conditions and progression, lack of career development programmes (Glazer-Raymo, 2008; Huang, 2009) and loaded administrative tasks are inversely related to career progression of female academics. In essence, the aforementioned factors are constrained female academics in progressing to upper ranks.

The last objective was to investigate the relationship between career progression and job satisfaction among female academics. Findings revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between career progression and job satisfaction. Hence, as female academics progress through the academic ladder by satisfying the requirements, there will be a corresponding increase in job satisfaction. However, lack of promotion requirements, which leads to career stagnation will ultimately lead to job dissatisfaction. This corroborates the assumptions of self-discrepancy theory which stated that, if female academics are able to strike a balance between their academic work and their personal life, without the latter affecting the former, there would be some level of satisfaction with the job, since the fulfilment of the former (i.e., academic work) is a major requirement for career progression in their place of work.

### **Conclusions and Policy Recommendations**

This study has presented valuable information regarding the state of career progression and job satisfaction among female academics in selected universities. The study concludes that the progression of women to the upper ranks of academic cadre has not only been complicated but also slow, with women remaining underrepresented at the top and overrepresented at the bottom. The factors responsible for this underrepresentation includes as poor condition of work, lack of career development programmes for female academics, marriage obligations, inflexibility of work schedule, inadequate educational qualifications, overcrowded job schedule, poor participation in administrative tasks and insufficient international academic publications amongst others. Also, as female academics progress to upper ranks, there exists a corresponding feeling of accomplishment among these academics and vice versa.

In the light of this careful empirical investigation, we wish to make the following recommendations as a way of resolving some of the issues identified. These include that:

- The universities are enjoined to address the issue of underrepresentation of female academics at the top through timely promotion. When those who possess the requirements for the next academic cadre are promoted as at when due, intrinsically, they become motivated, hence, satisfied which stir them to put in their best on whatever they do for the institution.
- The school managements are enjoined to provide female academics with conducive working environment, through the provision of fast and reliable

Internet facilities, uninterrupted power supply and well-ventilated offices in order for them to comfortably discharge their duties as lectures and equally motivate them to write academic articles which are all conditions for promotion.

- This study supports introduction of policies by school management such as career development policies, work-family policies and programmes that encourages and promotes work flexibility by these institutions that will enhance healthy balance and harmonious relationship between female academics, spouses and the universities. This might take the form of provision of crèche facilities for staff's children. This is a critical ingredient for shaping the organizational friendliness and marital stability.
- Female academics are advised to appoint house helps to assist them in executing certain household jobs. This will discourage lateness to work, quarries from superiors and encourage family-work balance.
- The institutions are also enjoined to grant female academics study leave so that they could concentrate and complete their respective programmes in a lesser time frame. They are also enjoined to structure the promotional criteria of their universities to accommodate female academics on issues related to progression.

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